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ABSTRACT

The report provides information on the social situation, the family, and the educational system in Turkey. The social situation is discussed in terms of the history of the Turkish political system, forms of society and social stratification (including causes for migration of Turkish workers abroad), the linguistic situation, religions represented, social life and relationships, and seven holidays. Information on the family covers the evolving status of the family from a traditional pattern to a more modern type, the roles and positions of family members, and eating habits. The education system from pre-school through higher education is summarized. Each educational component is discussed: basic education (primary schools and middle schools catering to children 7-14 years of age); secondary education (general, vocational and technical institutions with courses of at least 3 years' duration); higher education (undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate training in courses ranging from 2 to 6 years); and non-formal education (general education and vocational/technical education) which is integrated with formal education. Other education matters identified include: teaching methods, textbooks, use of media and facilities available; methods and prospects of reform; system of assessment and conditions for promotion; school-leaving certificates and reports; and qualifications demanded of primary and secondary teachers. (BRR)

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THE EDUCATION OF MIGRANT WORKERS' CHILDREN

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TURKEY

Socio-cultural information

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THE EDUCATION OF MIGRANT WORKERS' CHILDREN

Dossiers

for

the intercultural training of teachers

T U R K E Y

SOCIO-CULTURAL INFORMATION

by

Hamdi BINAY

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1. SOCIAL SITUATION

1.1 POLITICAL STATUS

a. Constitutional history

Turkey has had three periods of parliamentary government, the first constitutional period, from 1876 to 1878, the second constitutional period from 1908 to 1920 and the third period, which may be dated from the convening of the Grand National Assembly in Ankara in 1920.

The Consitution of 1876 provided for a two-chamber legislature; an elected Chamber of Deputies, and a Senate nominated by the Sultan, its members not to exceed one-third of the number of deputies. An irade of 28 October 1876 established a restricted franchise and indirect elections. The elections of 1876 and 1877 were both held under this system. An electoral law, the preparation of which was required by the Constitution, was actually drafted and discussed in 1877 but did not become law until after the revolution of 1908. The remaining elections of the Ottoman Empire were held in accordance with its provisions. These improved and extended the framework of the irade of 1876, but retained the restricted franchise and the system of electoral colleges.

The Grand National Assembly of Ankara consisted of a single chamber, and the Kemalist governments never attempted to reintroduce a second, whether nominated or elected. In other respects the republican regime showed itself to be conservative in electoral matters. The old electoral law remained in force, with its system of indirect or two-stage elections. It was not until 1946 that the system of direct election was accepted; it was fully applied in the general election of May 1950. Progress was more rapid in the extension of the franchise. As early as April 1924 the limitation of the franchise to taxpayers was abolished, as were some other restrictions. In 1934 the more radical step was taken of extending the vote to women, and henceforth all Turkish citizens, men and women, aged 22 and over, were entitled to vote.

A reform of far-reaching importance, going beyond the mere form and procedure of the elections, was brought about by the new electoral law of 15 February 1950. This law, passed with the approval of both the government and opposition parties, made a number of changes including the secret ballot and public counting of votes; by far the most significant was the transfer of the supervision and control of elections, both national and local, from the executive to the judiciary. This measure, which made judical bodies, not the governor, the supreme electoral authority in each constituency, was one of the main guarantees of the free and fair general election of May 1950.

In 1961 a new Constitution was introduced, the character of which was clearly established in Article 2 of the introduction: "The Republic of Turkey is a national, democratic, secular and social state resting upon the basic principles defined in the Introductory Remarks, and upon the Charter of Human Rights".

Under this Constitution, legislative power was vested in two chambers, the National Assembly and the Republican Senate. The Republican Senate was made up of 150 members elected by universal suffrage and 15 members appointed by the President of the Republic; there were, in addition, certain members known as "life members".

The representatives of the National Assembly were elected for a four-year term, whereas members of the Republican Senate were elected for a six-year term.

The President of the Republic was elected by the Grand National Assembly of Turkey. The election was by secret ballot, and a two-thirds majority was required. The President was elected for a seven-year term, and candidates for presidency had to be at least 40 years of age and have completed higher education. A President is not eligible for re-election.

The executive power was exercised, within the framework of the laws, by the President of the Republic and by the Council of Ministers. The Prime Minister was designated by the President of the Republic from among the members of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey.

As a general rule, the Prime Minister would be the leader of the political party which had gained a majority of seats in the general elections.

The Cabinet Ministers were nominated by the Prime Minister and appointed by the President from among the representatives of the National Assembly; in special cases other eligible persons could be appointed.

The Cabinet Ministers' list is submitted to the President of the Republic for approval.

This Constitution established the independence of the judicial authority, whereby judges issue their decisions and sentences in conformity with the laws and according to their conscience and personal convictions. No one may issue orders or instructions to judges concerning the exercise of their judicial power or give any advice or make any suggestions in that connection. With a view to further safeguarding the independence of judicial practice, a "Supreme Board of Judges" was established in accordance with the Constitution of 1961.

The Constitutional Court, first named in the Constitution of 1961, has been primarily concerned to see that legislation passed by the Grand National Assembly has been in keeping with the Constitution.

The Supreme Court is the highest authority dealing with appeals against the decisions and sentences of judicial tribunals. The Council of State is a Higher Administrative Court; its main duty is to mediate in administrative cases and disputes. The Military Court of Appeal is the highest authority dealing with appeals made with regard to sentences passed by military courts.

At present, Turkey is going through a period of reassessment and consolidation. From the day it came into power, on 12 September 1980, the new administration has taken every opportunity to assure the public that a democratic, parliamentary system will be re-established just as soon as it can be confidently assumed that such a system will once more function normally and beneficially.

The establishment of the Constituent Assembly, which started functioning on 23 October 1981, is the first step towards the complete restoration of the parliamentary, democratic system. This assembly is entrusted, by mandate, with constituent powers and is to draft the new Constitution. The draft will be submitted to a referendum after public debate. Once the new Constitution is

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adopted by popular and free vote, the Constituent Assembly will bring in new legislation concerning political parties and elections. A reasonable period of time will then be allowed for the formation and organisation of new political parties in accordance with the legislation of the Constituent Assembly, after which general elections will be held and the newly elected parliament will start to function.

1.2 *FORMS OF SOCIETY AND SOCIAL STRATIFICATION*

The evolution of modern Turkey provides a valuable insight into the process of rapid social change under a modern, democratic development strategy. The industrialisation plans prepared in the 1930s, the unplanned economy of the 1950s and emphasis on the more superficial aspects of modernisation have deeply influenced the emerging society and social stratification in Turkey. The economic policy pursued after the 1960s has been accompanied by relatively high but somewhat unco-ordinated economic growth.

The transition from an overwhelmingly agricultural to an increasingly industrial society has not always been accompanied by stabilising transformations.

The number of unemployed has been increasing. The educational system was unable to adjust to the pressing needs of a relatively rapidly industrialising society. Also, in Turkey the number of small producers and small landowners has not decreased as rapidly as in other countries with a similar pattern of industrialisation and a rather complex social stratification has therefore emerged. Efforts are now being made to adjust the educational system to the needs of a modernising society, to match education with the needs resulting from the requirements of modern production and to fill the cultural gap which arises in such conditions. These problems have been compounded by the consequences of economic factors such as rapid inflation and an excessive spending pattern, often provoked by intensive and artificial advertising. The unequal distribution of services such as health and communications within the country and the unsatisfactory level of housing facilities has influenced the pattern of social stratification. Migration from country to town has often been accompanied by the emergence of shanty towns, overcrowding in the suburbs, unemployment or the creation of what is called "a marginal sector" of such people as match-sellers etc.

The migration of Turkish workers abroad during the 1960s and 1970s has also greatly influenced the rate of social change in Turkey. In particular, the fate of the children of migrant workers and the problems related to their education and eventual return to their homeland require immediate and extensive solutions. On all these fronts efforts are being intensified in order to overcome present problems and to utilise fully the vast and valuable human resources that Turkish society possesses. The relatively young age composition of Turkish society makes an early solution of such questions all the more important. It is important that the different questions mentioned above be solved within the framework of a democratic society.

Distribution of rural and urban populations

Fifty-eight per cent of Turkey's total population lives in rural areas (defined as settlements with a populations of less than 10,000).

The Aegean and Marmara regions are the most heavily populated.

The next most heavily populated urban areas are: Central Anatolia and the Mediterranean zone. However, the population of the Mediterranean area is half that of Central Anatolia.

The heaviest migratory movements are found in the Aegean, Marmara, Mediterranean and Central Anatolian regions, especially Istanbul, Izmir and their environs in the Aegean and Marmara regions; Adana, Gaziantep and Mersin in the Mediterranean region; Ankara in the Central Anatolian region.

Eastern Anatolia and the Black Sea coastal area are the major centres whence the migratory waves originate. The Aegean and Marmara areas' rates of urbanisation between 1960 and 1975 are as high as 63.4% compared with 43.89% (Central Anatolia) and 40.7% (Mediterranean zone). In Central Anatolia, Ankara experiences the highest rate of urbanisation, while other cities in the same region have less immigrants. The Mediterranean region is undergoing constant and steady population growth and urbanisation.

Migration and urbanisation in Turkey are shown in the following tables.

TABLE 1

Internal migration in Turkey (1970-75)

Sex	Population
Female	15,345,000
Male	15,268,000
TOTAL	30,613,000

Source: State Statistical Institute

Table 1 shows Turkey's remarkably high level of population mobility. Quite apart from the secular trend of population movement from rural areas to cities, there is substantial movement of population within given areas. This high mobility is in part explained by housing problems: 42% of the population live in rented accommodation.

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TABLE 2

Urbanisation in Turkey (1975)

Direction of movement	Population
From village to towns and cities	359,609
From town to cities	426,523
From city to big city	1,339,075
Others	1,913,304
TOTAL	4,038,511

Source: State Statistical Institute

Table 2 indicates that in 1975 approximately four million people had migrated from the rural areas to cities. Thus the rural population was 75% of the total at the beginning of the 1950s, and had fallen to 60% by 1975. If this trend continues, by 1980 half of Turkey's population will be living in cities.

Degree of industrialisation

Early efforts to set up industries began in the 1930s. An industrialisation plan was drawn up and new factories for such products as iron and steel were built. However there was a long break until the 1950s before infrastructural investments began to be realised and some factories producing mainly consumption goods such as sugar were set up. It was during the 1950s that a period of more effective industrialisation began. Although the production of investment goods remained limited there was expansion in some sectors such as vehicles, other metal goods and textiles. The influence of foreign technology and a certain amount of foreign capital increased. The break-down of industrial production is shown in Table 5.

As can be seen from Table 3 the relative importance of industry in the Gross National Product has increased. A similar trend exists regarding employment (see Table 4).

One of the concrete results of this structural change is an increasing rate of migration into urban centres. However the pattern and rate of industrialisation, its connection with the still very important agricultural sector and the pattern and rate of employment creation could not always be suitably adjusted to the pressing needs, so that, for example, the number of unemployed in the cities tended to increase. Some of these unemployed people were absorbed into what is called "the marginal sector" consisting of professions such as match-sellers etc.

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The fact that the rate of increase of the population remained relatively high (around 2.6% annually) required a very high rate of industrialisation and employment creation. Although the average rate of growth of value in industry between 1975 and 1977 was 9.9%, this has, unfortunately, been insufficient to create the necessary number of jobs.

This structural change has also brought disguised unemployment, and its attendant productivity problems.

For example, during the period 1962-78, the service sector of the Turkish economy doubled its demand for manpower, from 1.9 million employees to 3.8 million. Yet in the last decade of that period, the proportion of Gross National Product generated by the service sector actually fell from 39.4% to 38.4%.

On the other hand, the present level of industrialisation leads to high requirements in the supply of manpower as indicated in Table 6. As can also be seen from the same table, there is an obvious shortfall in the supply of technicians.

Consequently, an evaluation of the level of industrialisation in Turkey brings us to the conclusion that Turkey is at an intermediate stage.

TABLE 3

Distribution of production among sectors

(Sectoral breakdown of Gross National Product %)

Sectors	1968	1978
Agriculture	28.9	19.6
Industry	31.7	42.0
Services	39.4	38.4
	100.0	100.0

TABLE 4

Sectoral distribution of manpower demand

Sectors	(15 years and over) (in thousands) 1962	1978
Agriculture	9,740	9,085
Industry	995	1,906
Services	1,908	3,854
TOTAL	12,643	14,845

Source: State Planning Organisation

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TABLE 5

Composition of industrial production

(percentage)

	1972	1977	III. Plan Target 1977
Mining	2.7	3.9	3.7
Manufacturing industry	94.9	94.0	93.5
Consumption goods	53.2	49.0	42.6
Intermediary products	33.9	37.7	40.7
Investment goods	12.9	13.3	16.7
Total manufacturing industry	100.0	100.0	100.0
Energy	2.4	2.1	2.8
Total industry	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: State Planning Organisation

TABLE 6

Supply and demand estimates for technical manpower

Professional groups	1978 Supply	Demand
Architects	9,500	5,580
Civil engineers	21,565	13,290
Mechanical engineers	15,990	13,810
Electrical engineers	7,120	9,965
Mining and metallurgy engineers	2,470	3,580
Chemical engineers	8,320	5,170
Cartographers	1,450	2,180
Agricultural engineers	8,000	7,325
Forestry engineers	3,775	3,505
Veterinarians	2,750	3,300
Other engineers	4,950	6,625
Construction technicians	14,400	13,500
Mechanical technicians	17,850	35,340
Electrical technicians	17,080	24,295
Mining foundry technicians	1,560	4,675
Technical painters	11,300	7,450
Chemical technicians	14,100	14,595
Agricultural technicians	10,450	8,290
Forestry technicians	1,250	3,950
Animal hygiene officers	1,720	3,250
Other technicians	12,500	15,740

Source: State Planning Organisation

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Foreign investment

The first law regulating direct foreign investment in Turkey was Promotion Act No. 6224, which came into force in 1954. In spite of the liberality of this law, the total foreign investment approved between 1954 and 1979 was only about 228 million US dollars. However, following the economic stabilisation measures of 24 January 1980, a considerable increase in foreign investment has been observed. By the end of 1980, the amount of foreign investment approved by the Turkish authorities had risen to 325 million US dollars.

Tables 7 and 8 (distribution of foreign investment with respect to sectors and countries) show that the highest proportion of foreign investment comes from West Germany and that the manufacturing sector is the major beneficiary.

TABLE 7

Distribution of firms, sector by sector, benefiting from the Promotion of Foreign Investment Act No. 6224 (31 December 1980)

Sectors	Number of firms	Amount of foreign investment permitted (million TL)	Share of total foreign investment (%)	Total capital of the related firms (million TL)	Share of foreign investment in total capital (%)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I. MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY					
Food, beverage, tobacco	7	1,116	11.6	1,915	58.3
Textile and clothing	1	374	3.9	499	75.0
Paper	1	49	0.5	87	56.0
Rubber	3	532	5.5	1,008	52.7
Plastic processing	1	4	0.0	10	38.4
Chemistry	21	954	9.9	1,281	74.5
Glass	2	226	2.3	2,150	10.5
Vehicles	8	1,740	18.0	5,460	31.9
Metal goods	12	435	4.5	4,345	10.0
Machinery manufacturing	6	337	3.5	764	44.1
Agricultural machinery and tools	1	18	0.2	70	25.0
Electrical machinery and electronics	17	2,391	24.8	5,510	43.4
Cement	1	84	0.9	280	30.0
Construction materials	3	154	1.6	525	28.0
SUB-TOTAL	84	8,413	87.2	23,931	35.2
II. AGRICULTURE	1	1	0.0	2	50.0
III. MINING	1	20	0.2	20	100.0
IV. SERVICES					
Tourism	7	385	4.0	679	56.6
Banking	5	809	8.5	3,724	22.0
Surveying, engineering consultancy services	2	14	0.1	34	41.1
TOTAL	14	1,208	12.8	4,437	27.2
GENERAL TOTAL	100	9,642	100.0	28,390	34.0

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TABLE 8

Distribution of firms by countries, based on the Foreign Investment Act No. 6224 (31 December 1980)

Country	Number of firms	Amount of foreign investment permitted (million TL)	Share of total foreign investment (%)	Total capital of the related firms (million TL)	Share of foreign investment in total capital (%)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
FED. REP. OF GERMANY	26	3,192	33.1	6,751	47.3
USA	16	1,051	10.9	2,486	42.3
AUSTRIA	2	4	0.0	11	36.4
BELGIUM	2	9	0.1	14	64.3
DENMARK	4	445	4.6	879	50.9
FINLAND	1	35	0.4	56	62.5
FRANCE	7	1,493	15.5	3,695	40.4
NETHERLANDS	6	449	4.7	842	53.3
UNITED KINGDOM	5	505	5.2	935	54.0
SWEDEN	3	10	0.1	62	16.1
SWITZERLAND	7	312	3.2	580	53.8
ITALY	4	243	2.5	640	38.0
JAPAN	2	19	0.2	60	31.7
CANADA	1	41	0.4	100	41.0
KUWAIT	1	65	0.7	162	40.1
MULTINATIONAL	5	590	6.1	4,232	13.9
LUXEMBOURG	1	536	5.6	536	100.0
INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTIONS (IFC, IKB)	7	643	6.7	6,353	10.12
TOTAL	100	9,642	100.0	28,390	34.0

Residence of migrant workers in the country of origin

Of those who went abroad to work between 1961 and 1978, 397,677 came from rural and 461,494 from urban areas.

Among rural areas, the Aegean and Central Anatolian regions have the highest emigration rate; in other areas the number of people going abroad is less. For example 10,000 people from Erzurum and 1,000 from Ağri are abroad. Significant statistics of people going abroad from urban areas are 189,000 from Istanbul, 66,000 from Ankara, 43,000 from Izmir, 24,000 from Konya, 20,000 from Denizli and 18,000 from Adana.

The distribution of migrant workers according to localities is shown in Table 9.

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TABLE 9

PROVINCE	GERMANY			AUSTRALIA			AUSTRIA			BELGIUM			FRANCE			HOLLAND			SWITZERLAND			OTHERS			TOTAL		
	'75	'76	'77	'75	'76	'77	'75	'76	'77	'75	'76	'77	'75	'76	'77	'75	'76	'77	'75	'76	'77	'75	'76	'77	'75	'76	'77
Adana	4	1	19	53	29	22	2	4	3	-	-	-			-		-	-	2	-	-	13	130	290	74	264	334
Afyon	1	3	13	1	1	-	16	3	6	18	7	5	1		-	-	1	3	4	25	3	1	27	235	42	57	265
Ankara	59	214	354	146	84	181	13	24	23	2	-	3	6		-	6	1	2	3	10	2	511	986	1023	742	1335	1586
Bolu	-	14	19	-	-	-	4	5	11	-	-	-	-		-	1	-	-	3	1	-	-	79	175	8	110	205
Denizli	26	84	93	7	34	56	5	23	18	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	5	4	2	3	11	113	49	154	282
Eskişehir	4	20	15	2	1	5	1	1	-	-	1	-	-		-	-	-	-	2	2	6	81	222	133	90	257	159
Giresun	1	15	24	-	-	9	3	6	3	-	2	1	-		-	-	-	-	1	1	4	-	33	230	5	57	278
Gümüşhane	2	14	30	-	-	-	6	2	3	-	-	1	-		-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	33	227	12	59	461
Fatsa	4	16	21	-	1	-	3	2	3	-	-	-	-		-	1	-	-	-	-	-	30	35	203	3	57	207
İstanbul	316	722	825	56	48	62	49	74	91	8	2	2	5		-	-	-	4	19	31	50	1979	4109	7078	2334	4776	7932
İzmir	66	155	159	7	21	37	9	13	12	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	21	115	27	22	190	594	175	497	859
Kayseri	10	81	114	7	6	10	8	20	18	-	-	-	-		-	-	1	1	-	-	-	2	24	132	27	132	365
Konya	12	30	76	3	4	7	5	23	27	6	8	11	-		-	5	5	21	1	4	5	58	80	232	90	154	479
Ordu	-	7	23	5	8	17	-	2	4	-	-	-	-		-	1	-	-	5	-	-	-	32	192	11	49	236
Samsun	1	-	17	25	28	14	2	7	17	-	-	-	1		-	1	-	-	2	1	4	3	3	267	35	39	319
Sivas	10	45	63	1	1	5	9	11	23	1	1	-	2		-	-	-	2	1	3	5	7	9	136	31	70	233
Trabzon	4	73	69	1	1	1	5	12	16	10	10	9	1		-	3	5	8	5	3	5	2	22	173	31	226	287
Yozgat	10	21	32		1	1	10	10	7	-	2	-	-		-	1	1	1	4	-	2	1	29	117	31	85	162
TOTAL									415	65	53	47	17			19	11	44	76	140	115	814	1				1154

1.3 LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

There is only one national language in the country. It is the medium of instruction at all levels of education throughout the country.

The Turkish language is related to the Altaic branch of the Ural Altaic languages. The closest to Turkish among these languages is Mongolian. The Turkish language of today has become a scientific and cultural language as a result of a long process of development. The oldest Turkish language is called Old Turkish. Examples of this can be observed in the inscriptions of Köktürkic (8th century AD) in the alphabet. The western dialect was used in the states which were formed by Turkic tribes and spread over many places in Asia and Europe.

The Turkish spoken in Turkey today is a branch of the western dialect (Oghuz), which has many branches, eg the Azeri and the Anatolian dialects. The western dialect continued to be used in Anatolia in the era of the Seljuks and in the early centuries of the Ottoman Empire.

In the course of time, Turkish became the language primarily of the people who lived in the rural areas. Under the influence of Arabs and Persians, the language of the statesmen, artists and scholars was Ottoman Turkish, a mixture of Turkish, Arabic and Persian. There was thus an important language discrepancy between the educated and the uneducated.

After the foundation of the Republic, Atatürk instituted a language reform in order to close the communication gap between the educated and uneducated and to unite the country as a whole. To further this activity he established the Turkish Language Institution, made up of scientific and literary scholars. As a result of the studies of this institution the total number of words in Turkish has exceeded 30 or 40,000, and Turkish has been cleared of foreign and foreign-rooted words. The number of words in the vocabulary of Anatolian dialects is over 60-70,000. The first alphabet of the Turkish people was the language of Köktürkic consisting of 38 letters. Four letters of this alphabet were vowels, three were diphthongs and 31 were consonants. The Orkhun inscriptions were written using this alphabet. The Turkic people began to use the alphabet of the Uighur after the alphabet of Köktürkic. The Uighur alphabet consisted of 14 letters. It was written from right to left and from top to bottom. The famous and important Turkish work written in this alphabet is Kutad gu Bilig.

After the adoption of Islam the Turkish people used the Arabic alphabet. This alphabet consisted of 32 letters and was written from right to left.

After the declaration of the Republic under the leadership of Atatürk, the Latin alphabet was adopted by the Turkish people on 3 November 1928 because of the peculiarities of Turkish which needed extra vowels. Once the Latin alphabet had been introduced and the reform had taken effect, the literacy rate in Turkey increased. In its general structure, Turkish is an agglutinative language. The roots of the words do not generally change. Derivative and inflective suffixes are added to them. It is possible to indicate this kind of peculiarity with this example: parasızlıklarından, "because of their poverty". The word is composed of: para, "money" - sız, "less" - lık, "ness" - lar, "plural" - ı, "possessive" - ndan, "from , due to". In addition, there is in Turkish the rule of vowel harmony. Another characteristic of the Turkish language is its syntax: the main part of a statement

comes at the end of the sentence, preceded by its modifiers and qualifiers. It is a language which is very rich in its use of verbs. Most words are derived from verbs. In the last 20 years the feasibility of word derivations in Turkish has been worked out and Turkish has developed a great deal as a scientific and cultural language. Today it is a language which is spoken in different dialects by approximately a hundred million people all over the world.

1. 4 RELIGIONS REPRESENTED, THEIR IMPORTANCE AND ROLE

The majority of Turkish society belongs to the Islamic faith; the Armenian, Greek and Jewish minorities, all of Turkish nationality, adhere to the Christian or Jewish faiths. They can perform their religious rites and meet the demands of their religions without any interference. The presence of the Greek Orthodox Church and the Orthodox Patriarchate for centuries, as well as of other religious, educational and charitable institutions, proves the extent of the freedom that religious minorities enjoy in Turkey. From the first Turkish states to the present time Turks have given rights and freedom to people of different religious beliefs. The principle of equal rights for Christians, Jews and Moslems was promulgated in the Gülhane Hatt-ı Humayun of 1839 and reaffirmed in the secularisation laws approved in the Constitution by parliament.

An individual in Turkey remains under the religious influence of his parents until he reaches adolescence. An adolescent is free to choose his own religion. In Turkey a great deal of importance is given to religious education and educational programmes are developed in accordance with this freedom. In Turkey, religious education in middle and secondary schools is optional and is taught by specially qualified staff. At the higher education level, religious education is provided by Faculties of Theology and Islamic Studies at two universities, and by the Higher Institute for Islamic Studies.

In the Islamic religion there is no mediator between the individual and God; worship is proffered only to God and may take various forms, the three main ones being physical worship (practical ritual service, fasting); worship which is observed by the sharing of wordly goods (the giving of yearly alms prescribed by Islam, the sacrifice of the lamb and the regular giving of alms to the poor); and worship which is performed by both the body and goods (going on a pilgrimage). Ritual prayer is practised five times a day and is compulsory for every Moslem man or woman.

A Moslem can perform his ritual prayer by himself or go to the mosque to perform it along with other members of the congregation. The ritual services, which are performed only on Fridays and on special religious feast days, eg Ramazan and Kurban Bayram, are performed in mosques along with other members of society.

The interior of an Islamic mosque is simple and austere. There is no altar and no sanctuary, for Islam has no sacrament and no ordained priesthood. The Imam - the authorised representative of orthodoxy - has neither a priestly nor pasteral function but is a leader in prayer and a guide in religious law. Public prayer is a disciplined, communal act of submission to the One, Remote, and Intangible God. It admits of no saints and no mediators, no drama and no mystery.

Moslems fast one month a year. Pilgrimage is compulsory once in a lifetime for those who are wealthy.

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Social life and relationships, forms of hospitality

The social life of rural areas is quite different from that found in urban areas. In the small hamlets and villages of rural areas, the traditional features of Turkish social life, such as mutual assistance and support, neighbourly relations, weddings attended by the whole community and the exchanging of visits and courtesies during religious holidays and festivities, are still as much a part of everyday life as of old.

The communication pattern that one finds in regard to economic commodities applies, traditionally, to communication of any kind. Most significant is communication of information. The village is first and foremost a small, self-contained universe of communication systems, both public and private. Public communication systems can be distinguished according to various criteria of social articulation, sex and social class being the most important ones after kinship.

Women, whose world is, as a rule, clearly distinct from that of men, engage in the art of communicating information in several more or less standardised manners. One is visiting; this is largely a matter between relatives. Otherwise, there are daily routines that are exclusively women's business, the execution of which brings women together, for example hauling water from the common well.

Men, on the other hand, have their own ways of communicating information. The most formal one of these is, no doubt, the gathering in the guest house or what performs the function of guest house. In many villages, several such meeting centres exist. The shop or in larger villages, the cafe, provides another meeting place.

In Turkish villages, kinship is the most important of the relationships outside the family and a very high proportion of activity is kinship activity. Personal kinship is through the male lineage which forms the core.

Kinship forms strong and numerous ties and relationships between both households and individuals. This kinship network extends from village to village and provides vital channels for all sorts of activities - economic, political, religious - and for the arranging of marriages, which in turn forge new kinship ties.

Brothers and cousins in separate households are considered close kin, as are relatives by marriage. Though the economic affairs of these households remain independent, brothers may often help each other with heavy work or may loan money to close relatives. Equipment may be loaned to relatives more readily than to non-relatives, and it is within the extended family that most mutual aid is performed. The extended family takes the place of the circle of close friends.

The division of labour in the family reflects the nature of the tasks to be performed. Women do all household chores and prepare the food. Men are responsible for most of the ploughing and cultivation involving the use of animals. They also build walls, construct buildings, and perform tithe labour for the village. In poorer families where men must seek outside employment, or in small families where at certain times there are too few men for the agricultural jobs at hand, women are expected to work in the fields. This is true particularly at sowing and at harvest where men and women work long hours to gather the crops. Women do little of the pruning and irrigation in the new orchards but when the fruit is picked men and women, both young and old, turn out to help. Children, when small, are given lighter tasks such as feeding animals, shepherding and running errands.

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In Turkish villages, the tradition of helping one another, called "imece", is the method for combating major crises such as sickness, food shortages, sickness of animals as well as for constructing crucial village facilities such as a mosque, a well and roads. Also all the villagers help each other in the same way in such cases as birth, circumcision, marriage and death ceremonies.

However, as a result of the drift of population to the cities, the cramped conditions of life in flats and apartments and increasing urbanisation and industrialisation, the traditional way of life is fast breaking down. Community life in towns and cities in Turkey is becoming very similar to that in Western countries.

Religious holidays are an indispensable part of social life. On the day which marks the end of Ramazan, called in Turkish "Şeker Bayrami", people visit each other, particularly relatives, and all shake hands and wish each other a blessed feast day and present small gifts such as candies to their guests. All households who own guest rooms of any kind, especially those in villages, open them to welcome any visitors.

The feast of sacrifice, the Kurban Bayramı, follows twelve weeks later. It has become customary to celebrate this Bayram by the sacrifices of a small animal, in Turkey usually a sheep or a goat. This Bayram goes on for four days and during this period a great many people go on a pilgrimage to Mecca and sacrifice animals at the shrines. Hospitality has always been the hallmark of the Turkish character. Foreigners and strangers are always welcomed in the most friendly way, especially in rural areas. No reward or reciprocal action is ever expected for assistance or entertainment.

For example, travellers, workers employed on village projects, government agents, and others become the responsibility of the wealthier members of the community and are provided with food and shelter during their stay.

HOLIDAYS

National holiday

29 October, the anniversary of the Republic, is a national holiday. Only on this day can there be ceremonies in the name of the state, either within the Republic or abroad. The holiday starts at 13.00 hours on 28 October and continues through 29 October. On this day all places of work are closed.

The official and religious holidays listed below, together with New Year's Day, are public holidays:

Official holidays

1. 23 April: National Independence and Children's Holiday. On this day, ceremonies are held in kindergartens and primary schools. Except for kindergartens, primary schools and other similar establishments which hold ceremonies on this day, all institutions work as usual.

2. 19 May: Commemoration of Atatürk and youth and sport holiday. All state recognised schools and offices are closed for one day for this holiday.

3. 30 August: Victory holiday. All state recognised schools and offices are closed for one day for this holiday.

Religious holidays

1. Ramadan holiday, which follows the month of fasting. The holiday begins at 13.00 hours on the eve of the holiday and lasts over the following three days.

2. Sacrificial feast: The holiday begins at 13.00 hours on the eve of the holiday and lasts over the following four days.

The first of January is the New Year's Day holiday. On this day all official offices and institutions are closed.

Weekend: Saturday and Sunday.

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2. *FAMILY*

Since 1926 the older family pattern based on Islamic tradition, which tolerated polygamy and granted extensive authority to the husband, has given way to a modern type of family governed by the principles of the Civil Law, a family where husband and wife enjoy equal rights. Thus, the family institution in Turkey has undergone a drastic change and has adopted a modern structure.

In Turkey, the nuclear family composed of a married couple and their unmarried children is by far the most common form (2/3 of Turkish families). The patriarchally extended family is a minority phenomenon (1/5 of families) occurring among landed proprietors or the capital-owning urban classes such as traders and artisans. The highest proportion of nuclear families is found among landless agricultural workers, followed by the urban professional and managerial classes. As we go from urban to rural areas the proportion of nuclear families decreases.

Family structure has a determining effect on authority patterns and hence on the status of women. Each family structure creates its own value system, the patriarchally extended family being more traditional and the nuclear family being more egalitarian in terms of conjugal roles. While in the traditional Turkish family the father's authority was dominant, the modern Turkish family displays no such difference between husband and wife. However, despite the fact that the patriarchally extended family is in the minority, its values are still effective and continue to have an impact on the socialisation of women. That patriarchal attitudes still permeate this socialisation becomes quite clear when we look at figures for women's education. The literacy differential between men and women is 35% in Turkey and this is the highest figure in the world (in 1970, 40% of women were literate as compared with 75% of men, in 1975 48% of women were literate as against 80% of men).

According to the law, the husband is the head of the family and the wife and children bear his name. The wife in a modern Turkish family plays a full part in the economic life of the family, has a job and earns a living like her husband.

The modern type of family based on effective equality between wife and husband is developing a stronger identity and becoming more and more widespread as industrialisation and urbanisation develop. Wife and husband enjoy the same rights, have equal job opportunities and both achieve economic independence. Housework is now being shared. No discrimination is made between male and female children. Duties and responsibilities are divided between family members. In rural areas, however, social evolution is rather slow and traditional forms of family life still prevail. In both rural and urban areas a quarter of the mothers in the 1973 Hacettepe survey wanted their daughters to be teachers, the second most preferred occupation being that of housewife, although this is true to a lesser extent in urban areas. In general, mothers want their daughters to become teachers, nurses, midwives, dressmakers, doctors and pharmacists, in that order, while their job preferences for sons are clearly more varied.

A woman's desire to be educated and have an occupation varies according to the environmental conditions in which she lives. Thus, women in more developed villages value education more, whether they themselves are literate or not.

TABLE 10

Distribution of family types at marriage according to place of residence (%)

Place of residence	Family type of formation			
	Nuclear	Patriarchally extended	Transient extended	Total (%)
3 largest cities	47.2	37.5	15.3	100
City	28.8	53.8	17.4	100
Town	21.0	65.0	16.0	100
Village	19.7	68.2	12.1	100
TOTAL %	24.2	62.3	13.5	100
N	(808)	(1,942)	(464)	(3,214)

Source: Women in Turkish Society

TABLE 11

Living conditions are indicated in table below

	Single room including barn and stable	1 room	2 rooms	3 rooms	4 rooms	5 rooms and plus
Ankara-Izmir Istanbul	0.8	7.3	34.8	37.5	15.3	4.9
Cities with population over 100,000	0.8	10.4	34.3	32.2	15.6	6.7
Cities with population between 50,000-99,999	0.6	9.7	39.9	30.2	14.2	5.4
Towns with population between 25,000-49,999	0.2	8.9	37.8	32.5	15.0	5.1
Towns with population between 10,000-24,999	0.5	9.2	34.9	29.8	16.8	8.8
Towns with population between 2,000-9,999	0.5	9.1	36.7	31.2	14.6	7.9
Villages	0.6	12.9	39.5	24.2	14.7	8.1
TOTAL	0.6	11.1	37.8	28.3	15.0	7.2

Source: State Planning Organisation

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Eating habits

Turkey is an agricultural country producing mainly wheat and other cereals. The staple food is wheat and its products. Turkey, a very large country with different climatic and environmental conditions, also produces many other foods such as fruits, vegetables and meat products, and people living in different regions tend to consume more of the foods they grow as the staple foods. For example, in the Black Sea region maize rather than wheat flour is generally used to make bread. However, with the improvement of roads and marketing over the past 20 years, it is possible to find many different goods even in the remotest parts of the country.

In Turkey, probably the most traditional and characteristic of eating patterns is to consume different groups of foods together. If the staple food of a particular region is a cereal, meat products or pulses, seeds and nuts are cooked together with cracked wheat or rice. For instance, dry beans with rice is very popular. Cracked wheat, called bulgur, is the second most popular food after bread. It can be prepared with meat or vegetables or pulses. In this case, the second food, that is meat or pulses, is considered as the relish. At times vegetables are considered as the staple food. Meat or yoghurt is added to the vegetable dish as the relish. Spinach with minced meat or yoghurt is another example. This characteristic of eating different foods containing various nutrients is probably the most significant tradition in Turkey. As would be expected in a major wheat-producing country, Turks consume large quantities of bread three or four times a day. It has been shown that bread consumption per person per day is over 300 grams in cities and about 700 grams in villages. There are regional types of bread such as yufka, bezlama, and bakery bread. Another food reflecting the traditional food group combinations is tarhana. This is prepared by mixing three parts of wheat flour with soured yoghurt. This mixture is dried and used as a soup base.

Vegetable and fruit production, particularly in coastal regions, is also quite large. In the metropolitan areas of the Aegean, Marmara, Black Sea and Mediterranean regions the types of fresh fruits and vegetables consumed generally change seasonally.

Turkey is one of the largest nut growing and exporting countries. People like to eat nuts as a snack. Pekmez, obtained from grapes, is another nutritionally valuable traditional food which was used as the main sweetening agent before the boom in the sugar industry. Milk production and marketing have grown rapidly over the past 10 years. Traditionally milk is consumed as either yoghurt or cheese. Yoghurt consumption in rural areas is higher than in the cities.

Meat and meat products are consumed more in the cities. Generally mutton and lamb are preferred. P k is forbidden by the Moslem religion and is therefore neither produced nor eaten.

In rural areas, the majority of foods eaten are produced at home by traditional methods. Cheese and milk products like tarhana are usually prepared during summer time when milk is abundant. Drying and salting are two significant storage methods. During summer time some vegetables and fruits are sun-dried for consumption in winter. Other popular meat products like pastırma and various types of sausage are prepared by salting and sun-drying as well.

In villages, consumption of wheat products, yoghurt and milk fat are higher than in the cities. On the other hand, consumption of more expensive foods from animal sources (eg meat, fish and eggs) is relatively low.

3. EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

3.1 STAGES IN EDUCATION

The foundations of the formal education system which has dominated the scene for more than 50 years were laid at the beginning of the Turkish Republic. Although the system has grown in new directions and undergone several changes, the basic structure remains the same. A rather simplified picture of the present education system is presented in Fig. 1.

As is shown in Fig. 1, the education system consists of three main levels, namely basic, secondary and higher.

Basic education generally caters for children between seven and 14 years of age. Basic schools consist of five-year first level and three-year second level institutions, respectively primary schools and middle schools. The first and second levels of the basic schools may be separate or joint units, depending on resources and conditions. The aim of basic education is to prepare pupils for life and for further education. Primary school is preceded by an optional pre-school institution called kindergarten for children between the ages of three and six. These establishments provide opportunities for the physical, psychological and social development of children who have not yet reached compulsory school age, as well as preparing them for primary school. Although the value of pre-school education is very well understood, financial constraints have prevented the government from making such facilities available to all. Another hindering factor is the fast rate of growth of the population. The number of children in each age group is very high. For example, there are about 1.5 million children of the age of six. However, there are a number of private pre-school institutions which are supported, helped and controlled by the government. In addition, the Turkish Ministry of Education has also opened pre-school classes attached to primary schools.

In order to ensure that the majority of the population benefit from pre-school education in the near future, the Ministry of Education is at present taking steps to extend facilities for pre-school education to children all over the country.

In considering primary education, which is free in state schools and compulsory for all boys and girls, certain problems must be borne in mind, one being that the scattered and isolated nature of communities in rural areas inhibits the provision of primary school facilities for all. To overcome this problem a number of regional boarding schools have been established by the government for children who would otherwise be educationally disadvantaged. In addition, many lycées have boarding facilities attached. There are 90 regional boarding schools which catered for 40,000 children in 1980. Despite these efforts, there is still a small percentage of children who are unable to receive basic primary education.

Nonetheless, enrolment in the first grade of primary school in 1981 was 1,400,000. On average 50% of primary school children transfer to middle schools, but the proportion varies according to areas of settlement (it is higher in the urban centres), sex and availability of middle school facilities.

Under the new basic education law, it is proposed to extend the period of compulsory education from five to eight years. Pilot studies on this subject are already under way.

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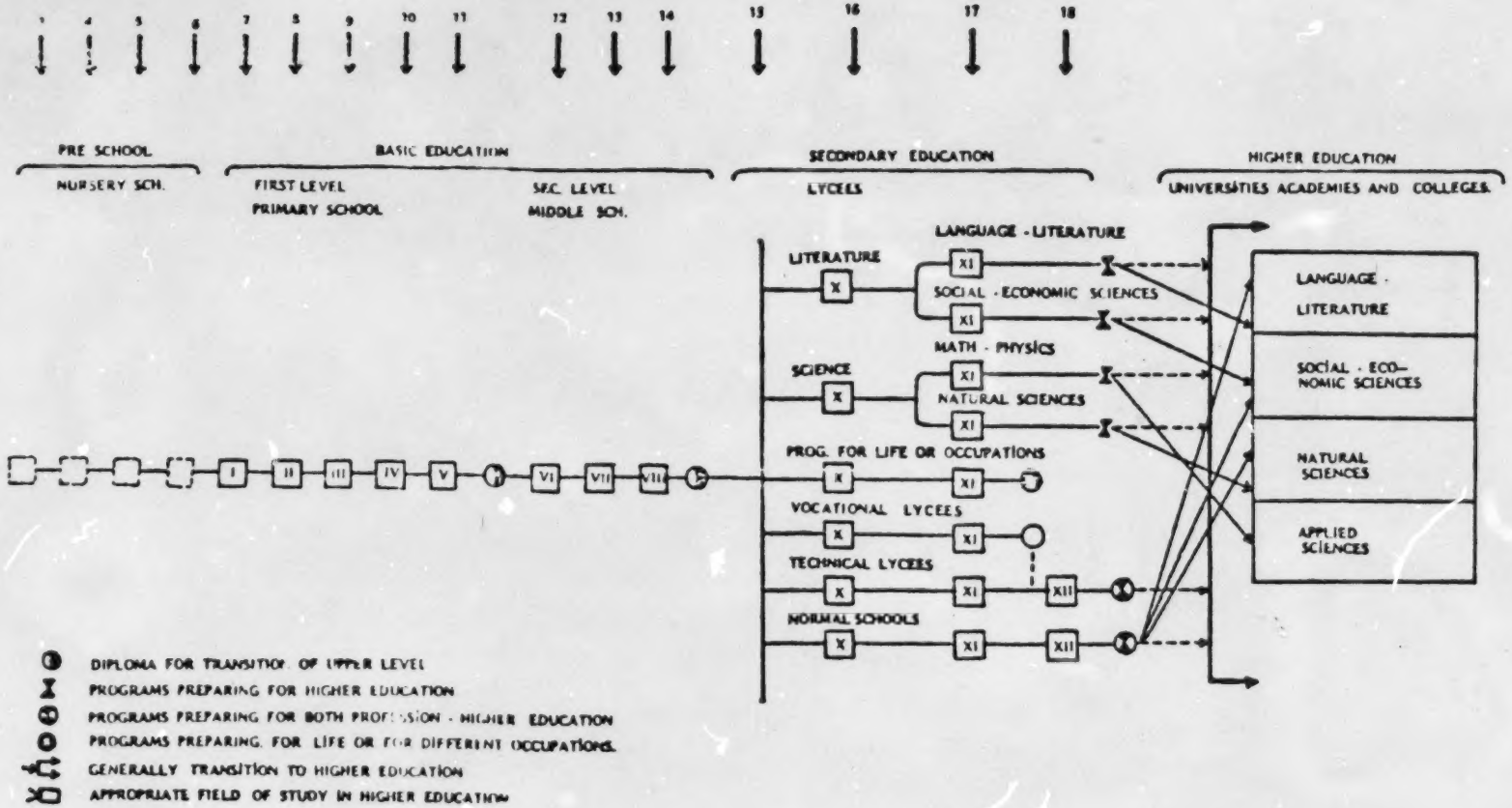

THE STRUCTURE OF TURKISH EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

FIG. 1

With regard to the general curriculum in primary and middle schools, it should be noted that vocational courses are not included, though some handicrafts, art etc is taught. Within the curriculum framework laid down by the Ministry of Education, school authorities are empowered to make adjustments to take account of local social and environmental factors.

Secondary education covers all general, vocational and technical institutions with courses of at least three years duration and follows on from basic education.

Secondary education, like basic education, is free and open to all children in state schools.

Every pupil who has completed basic education is eligible to move on to secondary education. However, the recent demand for technical and vocational education and the limited number of such schools has necessitated the introduction of some selection procedures. Secondary education consists of various types of lycées following different curricula. Specific names indicate the type of curriculum offered in a particular lycée.

After middle school, pupils can opt for either academically oriented secondary education at lycées or vocational and technical education. In the lycées there are two principal streams (arts and sciences) and the students are prepared for higher education. In vocational and technical schools some academic instruction is provided, though the emphasis is heavily on practical education. The provision of general academic subjects in vocational and technical schools makes it possible for students to transfer to formal higher education at a later date if they so desire.

In all secondary schools educational guidance and counselling services are available and considerable efforts are being made to improve both the quality of the service and the number of trained personnel.

There are some secondary schools in which some of the courses (mathematics and science) are taught in a foreign language.

In 1957-58 there were two lycées of this type, while in 1978-79 12 were in operation with 12,379 pupils. They provide courses of seven years' duration. After elementary school, the first year is for language preparation, the remaining six being evenly divided between middle school and lycée.

These schools are highly selective, because parents want their children to learn at least one foreign language. However, this is a matter of some contention which is unresolved at present.

There is also a science lycée, established for children with outstanding ability in science. It is the most selective secondary school in Turkey with some 283 pupils and 34 teachers.

Experience gained in this lycée (especially in curriculum and teaching methods) is to be used in the traditional lycées. For this purpose some pilot studies are being carried out.

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Secondary education offers three main types of course:

1. Courses preparing pupils for higher education

2. Courses preparing pupils both for an occupation and for higher education

3. Courses preparing pupils for life or for different occupations.

Students who complete secondary education courses preparing them for higher education or for both an occupation and higher education are eligible to sit for entrance to higher education institutions.

Higher education is organised to provide undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate training. In this structural unity, there are a number of educational institutions with courses ranging from two to six years, carrying out different functions.

The Turkish higher education system originally consisted of universities and colleges (yüksek okul). Recent decades have witnessed the rise of academies concentrating on particular areas of study, mostly commerce and technical arts. The typical Turkish university is a federation of highly autonomous faculties such as law, medicine, science, literature, agriculture and engineering.

Academies, on the other hand, usually cater for narrower fields of study than a typical university and emphasise teaching with a view to producing competent professionals. Academies have a departmental organisation, a career system of their own, and a comparatively wider area of independent decision-making and action than other higher education establishments.

Higher education establishments, which are mostly under the control and supervision of the Ministry of National Education, train professionals for the specific purposes for which they are established.

More recently, the Extended Higher Education Institutions (YAYKUR) system has been established to train people mostly for semi-professional occupations. There are some courses to train people for higher levels as well. Most students unable to go to university (because of low marks and the limited number of places) can attend these courses; students may also opt for them in preference to university.

This new system attempts to utilise all the facilities of educational technology. It is mostly a "distance-learning" or correspondence course type of activity which functions by making use of such media as television, radio, printed materials and the laboratories and workshops of non-formal educational centres.

The Basic Law of National Education has introduced a new level of higher education called ön-lisans (junior college). The junior college system in this sense is new in Turkey and some universities, academies and higher education establishments are experimenting with it. At the present time the results from the universities are not very encouraging.

Non-formal education is integrated with formal education. The Basic Law of National Education considers non-formal education as complementary or alternative to formal education. There are two main subdivisions: general education and vocational and technical education.

Non-formal education is not structured in the same way as formal education. Since many non-formal education courses do not lead to any degree or diploma, they are organised in a flexible manner to meet the immediate needs and interests of those attending rather than on the basis of academic levels or grades.

Types of non-formal education courses include: long-term or short-term courses, conferences, seminars, workshops, sandwich courses, in-service training, literary courses, mobile course provision for villages, arts and handicrafts, driving, sewing, embroidery, etc.

In addition to Ministry of National Education courses, education services are also provided by such government units as: the Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, the Turkish Armed Forces, the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Village Affairs, as well as by other official and voluntary organisations.

3.2 *TEACHING METHODS, TEXTBOOKS, USE OF MEDIA, AND FACILITIES AVAILABLE*

In primary schools, subjects are taught through topics rather than in isolation. Accordingly, in grades 1 to 3 all the topics are centred around the life sciences and in grades 4 and 5 around the social sciences and science. In primary schools each class has its own class teacher.

In secondary schools subjects are taught separately as individual disciplines. Modern methods and techniques in line with the latest developments in education are now used. Under the old curricula, traditional methods of instruction were usually employed, eg narration of facts by the teacher to passive students.

With the new methods of instruction, emphasis is placed on student participation in learning. Teachers are encouraged to utilise the methods of learning by doing in all circumstances. To enable students to have meaningful experiences, prime importance is attached to observation, experimentation and the project approach. The purpose of these methods is to make students think for themselves and work both collectively and individually.

In Turkey, a new science syllabus has been introduced into all secondary schools. In recent years an integrated science syllabus has been put into operation in 33 middle schools. In secondary schools modern mathematics are being taught.

Over 50% of secondary schools are teaching modern science syllabuses. The others are still teaching the more traditional science syllabuses, but will gradually switch to the modern ones.

Text books and use of media

In general, one book and its accompanying resource books are used for instruction in each subject. They are prepared by a special commission or chosen by competition from among works by many authors and are approved by

the Board of Education. Successful textbook submissions are published and used in schools for a three-year period. Textbooks are printed by the Ministry of Education printer.

Within the national education framework technological education is of growing importance. A General Directorate for Educational Aids has been established within the Ministry of Education to ensure progress in these matters and to introduce the latest technological developments from abroad. Associated with this General Directorate is the Film, Radio and Television Educational Centre and the Educational and Materials Production Centre.

In these centres attached to the General Directorate of Educational Aids, educational materials are produced for all establishments from pre-school to higher education level. Among the materials produced are 16 mm films, film strips, slides, flash-cards, educational kits for primary schools, plastic anatomy models, kits on mathematical and social science topics and educational radio and television programmes.

In schools where modern syllabuses are in operation and in the science lycée, it has been possible to provide one of these kits for every four students; there is thus sufficient equipment to enable personal rather than group or class experiments to be done.

3.3 METHODS AND PROSPECTS OF REFORM

With the advent of the period of planned development (1960s), long-range plans began to affect the country's economic, social and cultural development and the need arose for a review of the education system in order to meet the increasing demands of social and economic development. Serious efforts have been made since the early 1970s to redesign the objectives, content, methods and structure of the education system in the light of socio-economic development trends. These efforts initially resulted in a "National Education Reform Strategy" and a law was enacted to make the implementation of this strategy a legal obligation.

The principles enshrined in the Basic Law of National Education were the essential goals of the Reform Strategy which may be summarised as follows.

Integrity of the educational system

The educational system will be structured in such a way that Turkish citizens in formal and non-formal educational institutions will be trained in accordance with the needs of society, individual interests and ability and the principle of equality of educational opportunity.

Continuity in education

It is essential that the general and vocational education of individuals should continue throughout life.

Selection, orientation and guidance in education

In the orientation of students throughout their education towards courses corresponding to their interests and abilities, emphasis will be placed on understanding, interpretation, scientific thinking and application rather than knowledge based on memorisation.

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In the development of selection and orientation methods, the necessary steps will be taken to eliminate the effect of individual differences in environment and unbalanced distribution of educational opportunities.

Productivity in education

To achieve productivity in education emphasis will be placed upon the following measures: rational use of teachers, buildings, materials and financial resources in educational institutions.

Provision will be made for vertical and horizontal movements between and among educational courses and institutions, so that selection and orientation according to ability will be possible.

Programmes, methods and materials in education

Educational programmes at every level are to be so designed as to help prepare students adequately for life and jobs in accordance with the principles laid down in the general objectives.

Education everywhere

National education objectives will be pursued at all times and at all places, not only at educational institutions but also at home, in the community and at work.

Education and development

The objectives of national education will be established in accordance with the targets stipulated in developmental plans pertaining to industrialisation, technical development, planned settlement and urbanisation, balanced regional development, healthy living and family planning.

Planned education

National education will be planned in order to meet the socio-economic and cultural needs of individuals and society.

Education and employment

The education system will be so organised as to contribute to the solution of employment problems. The relationship between education, manpower and employment will always be considered.

Education and technological development

In the design of courses, technological progress will be taken into consideration, and technological developments will be followed closely, especially in the field of technical education, by establishing close links with industry.

A major problem has been the lack of co-ordination between industry and vocational and technical educational establishments, but, with the development of the new project, each sector will reinforce the role of the other. In this way, graduates of vocational and technical education establishments will easily find employment in industry. The recently approved law on an apprenticeship training scheme should also improve this situation.

At the end of 1980 the Turkish Ministry of National Education decided to carry out a review of the present educational system in the light of the socio-economic problems raised by the recent rapid development and growth in science and technology. As part of the movement to effect a reform of the education system, the Supreme Council of Education also convened and put forward suggestions for improving the structure of the education system, curricula and student flow. Its assessment and recommendations are outlined below.

A. THE STRUCTURE

The new structure is based on the assumption that secondary education needs to be reorganised to match proposed changes in both primary and university education following the introduction of new laws relating to both basic and higher education.

The structure has also been developed in accordance with the guidelines laid down in the fourth 5-year State Development Plan, which states that the education system should:

i. contribute to the development of both the individual and society,

ii. develop in accordance with current technological and economic demands, in conformity with other systems,

iii. offer a complementary framework of formal and non-formal education.

THE MODEL

The main characteristics of the new model, its principles and functions, can be described as follows:

1. Characteristics of the new model

i. The school is to be the fundamental unit.

ii. Compulsory kindergarten education is envisaged. At first it can only be encouraged but as soon as is feasible it will be made obligatory.

iii. Compulsory basic education will cover eight years and be divided into a 3-2-3 year pattern.

iv. Compulsory basic education will include a basic academic education together with training in vocational skills.

v. Secondary education will be comprehensive in character with a variety of courses including vocational and technical studies.

2. Principles

i. The present-day education system aims at effecting a meaningful unity among the various units.

ii. Technical and vocational education to be emphasised at all levels.

iii. Horizontal and vertical mobility to be introduced as required throughout the system.

3. Functions

The new models will:

i. provide educational opportunities for those who, for one reason or another, are unable to benefit from formal education,

ii. reduce the demand for secondary courses leading to higher education,

iii. provide a basic education for the skilled and semi-skilled manpower required by Turkish industry,

iv. encourage the more efficient use of limited educational resources,

v. broaden the scope for arousing the students' interests by offering a variety of new learning experiences,

vi. awaken a sense of brotherhood and national unity through shared educational experiences at all levels,

vii. lower the artificial barriers between formal and non-formal education.

The new structure also proposes changes in school organisation and administration at all levels, and also in the Ministry of National Education.

B. THE CURRICULUM

At the Xth Convention of the Supreme Council of Education, decisions were taken to develop a realistic curriculum, with contemporary, secular and functional courses suited to the changing needs of Turkish society and geared to national unity.

In designing new curricula, consideration will be given to:

i. the harmonious development of all branches and aspects of the educational system,

ii. adapting educational requirements to the economic and industrial situation,

iii. the problems associated with school drop-outs,

iv. the introduction of a well-balanced and integrated system recognising the separate claims of vocational, technical and general education as well as of adult education and in-service programmes as a means of countering the disproportionate ascendancy of the traditional lycée curriculum leading to higher education,

v. establishing a guidance programme as an organic component of school curricula. The main learning activities of the curricula will provide rewarding and stimulating learning experiences from grades 1 to 11 inclusive.

At each school level, functions, objectives and content activities will be developed in accordance with the country's rapidly changing socio-economic needs. The first significant development will be at the pre-primary level, which is henceforth to be an integral part of the national education system.

The curriculum for the eight years of basic education will include Turkish, social studies, science, mathematics, physical training, fine arts and practical-technical education. Practical-technical activities will account for 35% of the content of the last three years of basic education and include typing, handicrafts, commerce, home economics, first-aid, woodwork, metalwork, agriculture, etc.

Optional courses will be offered in line with the interest and abilities of the students and will, as required, be offered at greater depth for those who wish to specialise in a particular field.

Secondary education aims to be functional, but it will still be the vocational schools, with their special facilities and well-equipped workshops, that offer serious specialist training.

The secondary curriculum has three main parts: basic studies, specialist studies (including academic, commercial, agricultural, technical and technical-vocational courses) and practical skills.

The functional aspect of the curriculum depends on the abilities, aptitudes and interests of the students. Those opting for the sciences will also take courses in either literature or language, and those opting for the social sciences will also be required to take courses in basic sciences, mathematics, etc.

Extended education

Extended education objectives:

i. to provide services to schools,

ii. to provide educational opportunities for those outside the education system,

iii. to provide opportunities for self-education.

The following steps will be taken to facilitate the achievement of these objectives:

i. institutions for extended education attached to different ministries will be co-ordinated at a higher level,

ii. adult education programmes will take into consideration new developments in industry, agriculture and the service sector,

iii. more research will be carried out into the qualitative and quantitative aspects of manpower needs,

iv. the movement between formal and non-formal education will be facilitated,

v. meaningful co-operation between industry and adult education will be encouraged,

vi. adult education centres will be opened in all towns,

vii. the technical, vocational and general aspects of the curricula will be developed,

viii. any legal measures required to effect the above will be taken.

C. STUDENT FLOW

"Admission to educational institutions at different levels".

This section is concerned with entrance to different schools, systems of evaluation, guidance and counselling, problems of accountability and personnel training.

1. It has been unanimously agreed that the eight years basic education course should be compulsory. Handicapped children with special educational requirements will be transferred to special programmes.

2. Places in secondary education should be allocated in accordance with the recommendations of the educational guidance services; these services would function continuously. Everyone seeking secondary education will be given a place.

3. Entrance to higher education ought to be subject to selection in accordance with:

i. the interest and preference of the student,

ii. his/her success in secondary education,

iii. his/her ability,

iv. the kind of programme he/she has followed at the secondary school.

The present centralised system of selection and placement for higher education should be continued.

It was recommended that in the event of failure in individual subjects, a student should repeat those subjects, but not the entire year's work.

3.4 TEACHING CONDITIONS

The expansion of education from the early days of the Republic up to 1978 is illustrated in Table 12 and Fig. 2.

TABLE 12

Development of school and university attendance and developments in educational provision in Turkey (percentages)

	1935	1950	1960	1973	1978
First cycle of basic education (primary school)	34.0	69.0	81.0	84.0	87.5
Second cycle of basic education (middle school)	6.3	6.5	17.2	33.8	34.9
Secondary education (lycée)	3.3	3.7	10.6	11.2	14.6
Higher education	0.7	1.3	3.1	4.0	8.4

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A. BASIC EDUCATION

(primary school and middle school)

1. Primary school

The first cycle of basic education is primary school. As can be seen from Table 12, the enrolment rate has increased over time. Eleven per cent of children of primary school age are still not enrolled in primary schools, but it is hoped that the target of 100% primary enrolment will be reached in 1983 (Table 17). The present shortfall remains despite major efforts to increase capacity. While there has been progress in terms of quantity, efforts to improve quality have not yet provided sufficient results and the curriculum of primary schools has still not been brought into line with the principles of basic education. The recent trend in pupil-teacher ratios in the first cycle of basic education is shown in Table 19 and enrolment ratios by age group in Table 13.

Some idea of the quality of education can be obtained from the table on student-teacher ratios for different regions (Table 23) which shows that there are still regional differences, pupil-teacher ratios varying from 18 to 44.

2. Middle school

The second cycle of basic education is middle school. At present less than half of the children who are eligible are actually enrolled. Although the aim of national education is 8 years of compulsory education for all children, much still remains to be done. However, the implementation of the 8-year basic education system has already begun in localities where resources are adequate.

An important step to bridge the lack of 8-year compulsory schooling was taken with the recently published apprenticeship law which makes provision for youth apprenticeship training from the age of 12 (legal age for employment).

B. SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education follows basic education and covers all general, vocational and technical education institutions which give a minimum of three years schooling. Table 16 shows the development of enrolment in secondary education. Recent trends in student-teacher ratios in middle school, lycées and in vocational and technical education are shown in Tables 20, 21 and 22.

With the exception of physical education, music and foreign language specialists, schools teaching the second cycle of basic education and secondary education are adequately staffed. However as with all secondary institutions there is a shortage of physical capacity. This applies especially at the lycée level.

Despite the need for technically qualified personnel for Turkey's developing industrial economy, at the secondary level general education remains predominant. There is a substantial unsatisfied demand for secondary technical education, because it has not been possible to increase the capacity to meet the rising demand. For this reason a much larger role in vocational training is assigned to adult education establishments such as practical crafts schools for boys and girls, popular education centres, etc.

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A further contribution to vocational and technical education is being made by the larger industrial undertakings, which are establishing training centres.

Student enrolment in secondary schools increased from 10.4% in the period 1963-67 to 23.3% in the period 1973-77 (see table 16). The number of students enrolled in technical, commercial and agricultural schools rose from 270,754 in 1973-74 to 408,531 in 1977-78, an increase of more than 66% (see tables 21 and 22).

C. HIGHER EDUCATION

In Turkey only 8.4% of the population of appropriate age gains access to higher education. There is a growing discrepancy between the increasing output of secondary education and the limited opportunities offered by the higher education sector. Increases in capacity have not kept pace with rapidly rising demand and there is therefore a serious bottleneck between the secondary and higher education levels.

The problem reached such a pitch that it gave rise to social unrest. In fact, during the 1970s, the number of eligible applicants for entry into higher education was ten times greater than the number of places available in higher institutions (Table 24).

The increase in total enrolment in higher education is shown in Table 28. It can be seen that the greater part of recent growth has taken place in higher education institutions other than universities.

Teaching conditions at all levels have improved rapidly over the past 15 years (see Table 14, 15 and 16). The literacy rate for the whole country reached 61.7% in 1975 (see Table 18).

A comparison between formal and non-formal education is given in Fig. 2, which shows that the provision of non-formal education increases rapidly after primary school age. Fig. 2 also shows the small coverage of the formal system after age 18.

3.5 SYSTEM OF ASSESSMENT AND CONDITIONS FOR PROMOTION

In the first three years of primary school all pupils progress automatically to a new class every year. During the third year an examination is held and an assessment is made. The opinion of the teacher is the most important factor regarding the move of the child to the next class.

In the second section of primary schools every student receives a report on his or her progress each semester. Oral and written examinations are set by the class teachers and the following grades can be awarded: (5) excellent, (4) Good, (3) Fair, (2) Weak, (1) Poor.

In the middle schools, each subject teacher assesses his pupils' performance by means of written and oral examinations. He gives one of the above-mentioned five grades to each of his pupils. In the written examination, essay-type questions are commonly used. Gradually multiple choice examinations are being introduced. In order to obtain a diploma from a middle school or lycée, it is necessary to pass the written examinations in a majority of subjects.

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FIG. 2

SCHOOL ENROLMENTS

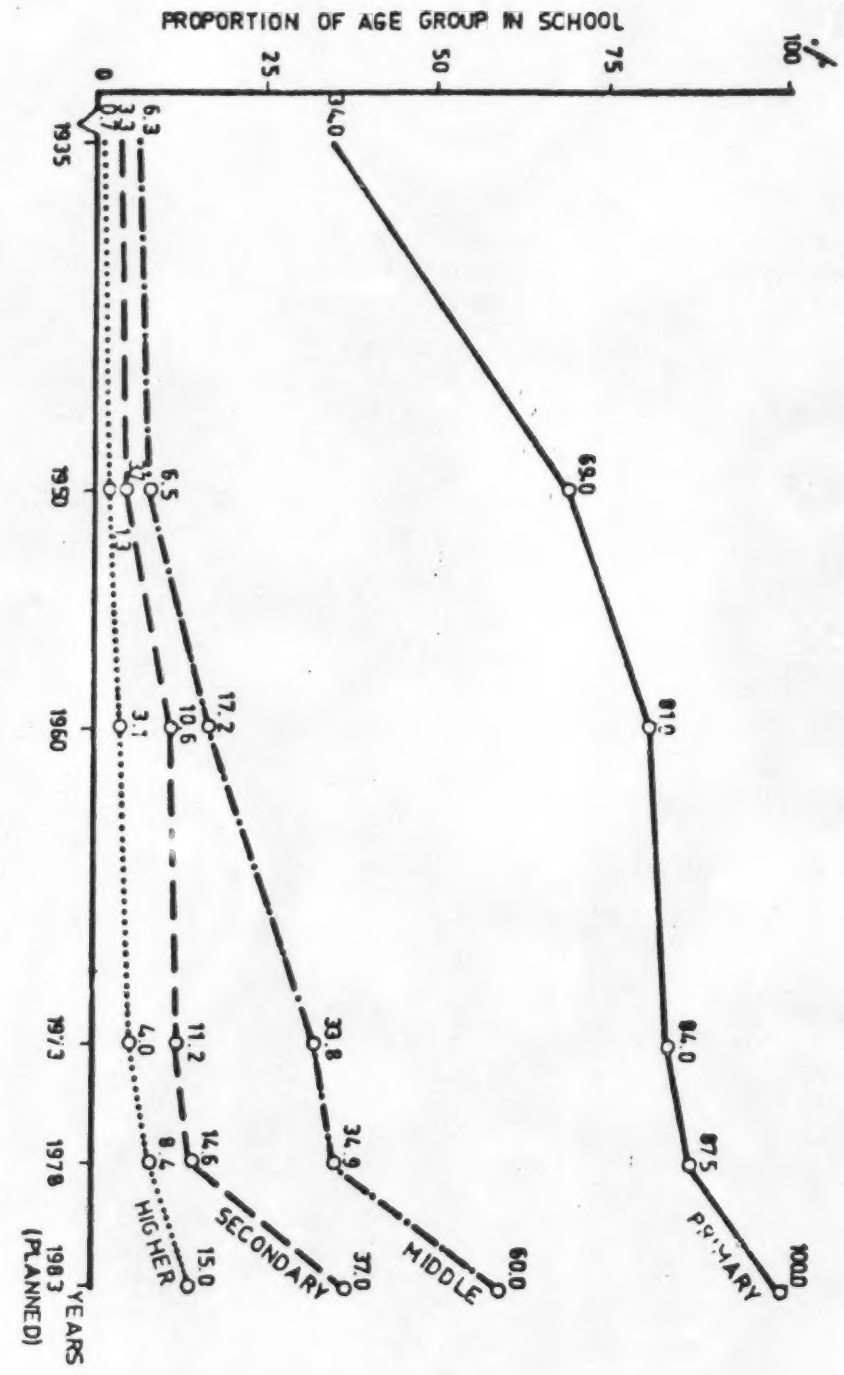

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TABLE 13

Distribution of students by school age groups (1973-78)

in thousands

Age group / Years	7-12			13-15			16-18		
	Age population	Number of students	Enrolment ratio (%)	Age population	Number of students	Enrolment ratio (%)	Age population	Number of students	Enrolment ratio (%)
1973-74		5,329		2,642.2	893.9	33.8	2,471.9	499.3	20.2
1974-75		5,354		2,692.3	899.1	33.4	2,525.7	544.4	21.5
1975-76	6,109	5,320	87.1	2,910.0	996.0	34.2	2,718.0	625.4	22.5
1976-77	6,114	5,475	89.5	3,005.0	1,012.1	33.7	2,845.0	653.2	22.9
1977-78	6,147	5,384	87.5	3,034.0	1,057.7	34.9	2,902.0	716.4	24.6

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TABLE 14

Rate of enrolment
Basic education 1st cycle schools (7-12 age group)

Plan period	Population 7-12 age group	Average targets		Average realisation	
		Total number of students	Enrolment rate	Total number of students	Enrolment rate
1963-67	5,144,000	4,146,000	80.0%	3,973,468	77.1%
1968-72	5,704,000	5,441,000	95.3%	4,984,015	87.3%
1973-77	5,998,510	5,692,420	94.0%	5,347,720	89.2%

TABLE 15

Rate of enrolment
Basic education 1st cycle school (13-15 age group)

Plan	Population 13-15 age group	Average targets		Average realisation	
		Total number of students	Enrolment rate	Total number of students	Enrolment rate
1963-67	2,193,000	2,150,000	19.3%	510,112	23.1%
1968-72	2,595,800	1,068,100	41.0%	848,447	32.6%
1973-77	2,742,840	1,285,180	46.6%	1,052,759	38.3%

TABLE 16

Rate of enrolment
Secondary schools (16-18 age group)

Plan period	Population 16-18 age group	Average targets		Average realisation	
		Total number of students	Enrolment rate	Total number of students	Enrolment rate
1963-67	1,872,000	126,000	6.7%	196,871	10.4%
1968-72	2,333.000	282,447	12.0%	366,228	15.6%
1973-77	2,577,000	578,440	22.4%	602,583	23.3%

TABLE 17

Total number of students and rate of enrolment in different levels of schools
(IVth Five-Year Development Plan) (in thousands)

School year	Basic education I cycle			Basic education II cycle			Secondary education			Higher education		
	Total popul	Students number	Enrolment rate	Total popul	Students number	Enrolment rate	Total popul	Students number	Enrolment rate	Total popul	Students number	Enrolment rate
1979-80	6,348	5,651	89.0%	3,035	1,310	43.1%	2,994	779	26.0%	3,713	385	10.4%
1980-81	6,520	5,939	91.2%	3,020	1,424	47.1%	3,023	848	28.0%	3,808	427	11.2%
1981-82	6,688	6,242	93.8%	3,010	1,548	51.4%	3,031	923	30.5%	3,882	474	12.2%
1982-83	6,839	6,560	96.0%	3,033	1,683	55.5%	3,024	1,005	33.2%	3,940	526	13.4%
1983-74	6,938	6,938	100.0%	3,103	1,862	60.0%	3,008	1,113	37.0%	3,958	598	15.0%

Age group 19-22

TABLE 18

Literacy Rate
(over 6 years of age)

Census Year	Population		Illiterates		Literates	
	Total	6+	Number	%	Number	%
1965	31,391,421	25,664,797	13,159,776	51.3	12,505,021	48.7
1970	35,605,176	29,273,361	13,095,332	44.7	16,178,029	55.3
1975	40,197,670	33,672,121	12,909,167	38.3	20,762,954	61.7

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TABLE 19

Pupils and teachers and pupil-teacher ratios in primary education (1973-78)

	Number of pupils	Number of teachers	Pupil Teacher ratio
1973-1974	5,305,417	156,170	33.97
1974-1975	5,354,593	159,162	33.64
1975-1976	5,512,000	173,000	31.86
1976-1977	5,475,986	181,229	30.21
1977-1978	5,383,711	180,849	29.77

TABLE 20

Students and teachers and student-teacher ratios in middle schools and lycées (1973-78)

Years	Type of school	Number of students	Total number of teachers	Student teacher ratio
1973-1974	Middle school Lycée	893,930 277,010	30,605	38.26
1974-1975	Middle school Lycee	899,137 310,680	32,351	37.40
1975-1976	Middle school Lycee	996,020 353,345	37,839	35.66
1976-1977	Middle school Lycee	1,012,091 372,492	36,020	38.44
1977-1978	Middle school Lycee	1,057,756 425,180	42,020	35.29

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TABLE 21

Students and teachers and student-teacher ratios in technical, industrial, vocational and commercial lycées and lycées for girls (1973-78)

Years	Type of school	Total number of students	Total number of teachers	Student-teacher ratio
1973-74	Technical Lycees	4,344	159	27.32
	Industrial and Vocational Lycees	68,658	3,559	19.31
	Lycee for girls (*)	42,559	3,535	12.04
	Commercial Lycees	42,017	1,475	28.49
1974-75	Technical Lycees	4,290	162	26.48
	Industrial and Vocational Lycees	73,000	3,777	19.33
	Lycees for girls (*)	45,568	3,733	12.21
	Commercial Lycees	49,810	1,810	27.52
1975-76	Technical Lycees	5,083	170	29.9
	Industrial and Vocational Lycees	90,849	4,093	22.20
	Lycees for girls (*)	51,765	3,974	13.02
	Commercial Lycees	68,721	2,260	30.41
1976-77	Technical Lycees	5,835	159	36.70
	Industrial and Vocational Lycees	95,511	4,340	22.01
	Lycees for girls (*)	56,169	4,430	12.68
	Commercial Lycees	79,220	2,467	32.11
1977-78	Technical Lycees	6,550		
	Industrial and Vocational Lycees	99,388	4,579	21.79
	Lycees for girls (*)	62,062	4,636	17.59
	Commercial Lycees	80,489	3,466	23.22

(*) These figures cover first and second cycles of girls schools.

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TABLE 22

Students and teachers and student-teacher ratios in teacher lycées, religious lycées, religious schools, health schools and agricultural schools (1973-78)

Years	Type of school	Total number of students	Total number of teachers	Student-teacher ratio
1973-74	Teacher lycées	63,293	2,771	22.84
	Religious schools (*)	34,580	1,442	23.99
	Health schools (**)	11,294	-	-
	Agricultural schools	3,559	364	9.78
1974-75	Teacher lycées	58,570	2,922	20.04
	Religious schools (*)	48,900	1,460	33.49
	Health schools (**)	11,607	-	-
	Agricultural schools	2,948	425	6.94
1975-76	Teacher lycées	53,162	2,702	19.68
	Religious schools (*)	77,494	2,744	28.24
	Health schools (**)	12,068	-	-
	Agricultural schools	2,621	360	7.28
1976-77	Teacher lycées	39,773	2,720	14.62
	Religious schools (*)	110,584	2,764	40.01
	Health schools (**)	12,597	-	-
	Agricultural schools	2,554	400	6.14
1977-78	Teacher lycées	32,241	1,833	17.59
	Religious schools (*)	134,514	3,808	35.32
	Health schools (**)	20,021	-	-
	Agricultural schools	3,271	422	7.75

(*) (**) Covers first and second cycles

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TABLE 23

Student-teacher ratios in certain provinces during the academic year 1974-75

Province	Number of students	Number of teachers	Student-teacher ratio
AĞRI	37,624	839	44
URFA	66,862	1,548	43
MARDİN	57,252	1,389	41
VAN	35,315	909	39
YOZGAT	75,640	1,982	32
ANKARA	333,236	10,404	32
ARTVİN	31,517	1,577	20
EDİRNE	70,988	2,114	19
BİLECİK	14,806	834	18
National total	5,354,600	159,162	33,6

Source: State Planning Organisation

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TABLE 24

Demand for higher education and new enrolment

Years	Number of candidates for inter-university selection examination (1)	Number of candidates admitted to higher educational institutions (2)	Percentage (3)
1974-75	229,994	59,247	25.7
1975-76	281,273	57,197	20.3
1976-77	316,341	58,292	18.4
1977-78	357,511	36,546 (1) 122,940 (2)	10.2 (1) 34.4 (2)
1978-79	373,864	37,000 (3)	9.9 (3)

Source: State Planning Organisation

TABLE 25

Trends in total student numbers in higher education

Institutions	1968	1972-73	1973-74	1977-78
Universities	70,405	75,118	78,377	114,641
Schools of higher education and academies	66,634	98,413	107,622	232,598
Total	137,039	173,531	185,999	347,239

Source: State Planning Organisation

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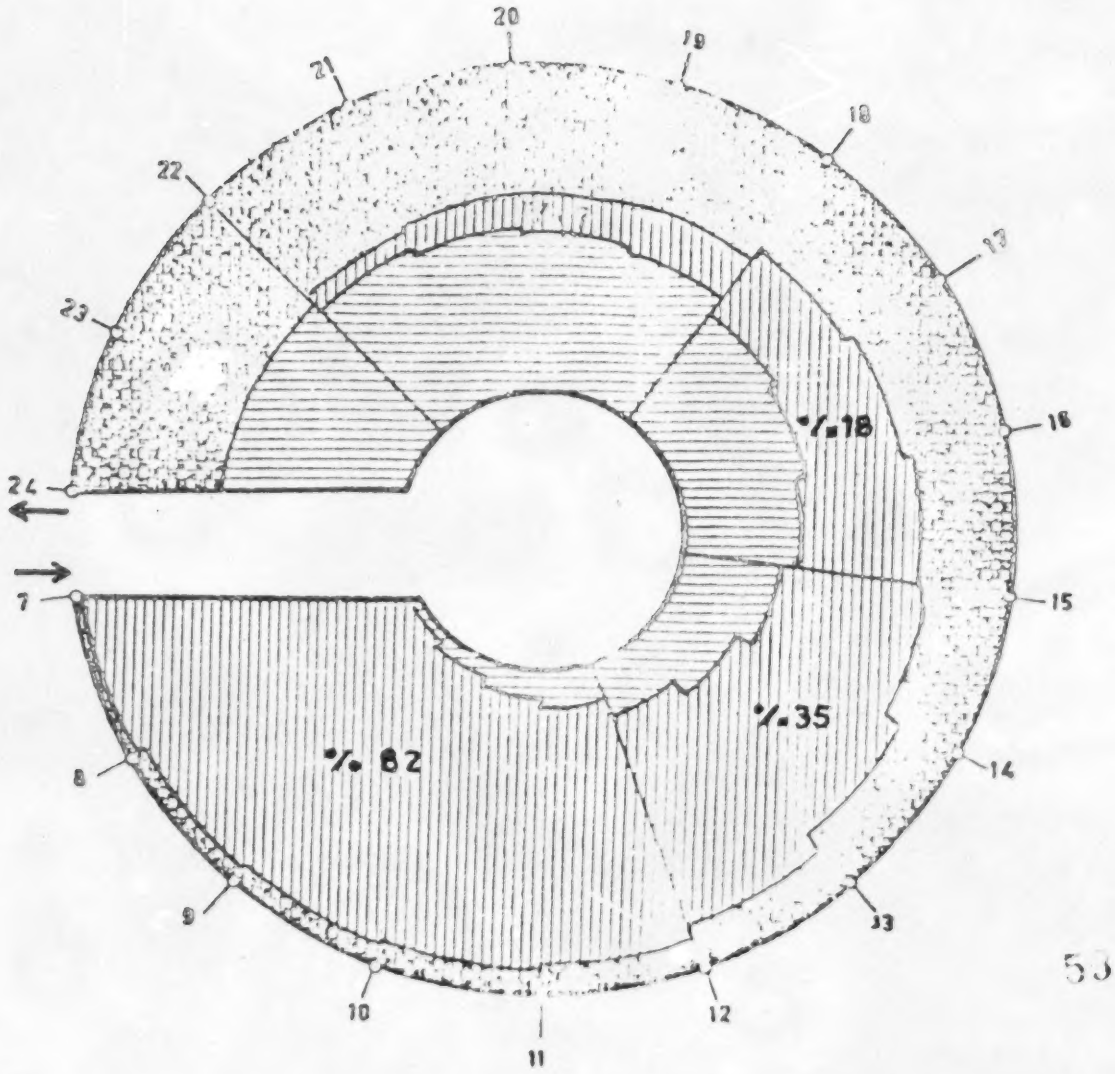
Formal education

Non-formal education
For unemployed adults

Non-Formal education
For employed adults



In the science lycée and in the schools where the modern programme is in operation, groups of interrelated tests have been devised by the Ministry of Education's testing centre.

3.6 SCHOOL-LEAVING CERTIFICATES AND REPORTS

Every primary school pupil who reaches the required standard receives a diploma when he leaves. Pupils who are unable to reach that standard by the age of 14 are given a document outlining the standards they have managed to achieve. These pupils are permitted to attend adult education programmes if they so wish.

Only pupils possessing a primary school diploma can proceed to middle schools. Drop-outs from middle school and those who fail for two years in the same class, are given a certificate outlining the progress they made.

Middle school pupils who reach the appropriate standard receive a diploma. Only these pupils have the right to go on to lycées. Those who do not reach the qualifying standard in the lycées and those who fail twice in the same class are given a letter from the lycée detailing the standards actually achieved.

In order to be able to enter a particular higher education institute, a pupil must gain the minimum score required for admission to that institute in the centrally devised "Inter-Universities Selection Examination".

3.7 QUALIFICATIONS DEMANDED OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS

Pre-school education teachers who are mainly women are currently trained in the Women's Higher Technical Teachers' Training College where they follow a two-year basic training programme.

Those wishing to become primary school teachers are required to attend a training college for primary teachers, entry requirements for which are a lycée diploma, or a diploma from an equivalent school, and satisfactory marks in the Inter-Universities Selection Examination. Studies last two years.

In order to be admitted to training colleges for primary teachers a student must possess a lycée diploma or a diploma from an equivalent school and must gain sufficient points in the Inter-Universities Selection Examination. The duration of study in these colleges is two years. Graduates become primary school teachers.

In order to be a secondary school teacher, it is necessary to possess a diploma from a university or teachers' training college. Courses last four years.

In the case of art, music and physical education, candidates must also pass a proficiency examination in their proposed field of work.

In order to enter the educational division of the Gazi Pedagogical Institute it is necessary to have successfully completed five years' teaching and to obtain sufficient points in the Inter-Universities Selection Examination. Graduates from this section become inspectors of primary schools, assistant specialists in the Guidance and Research Centre or teachers in an educational institute.

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The training of teachers for vocational and technical schools at secondary level is carried out in the following manner:

Industrial technical education

There are the men's higher technical teacher training colleges where training takes four years. There are two colleges of this type. Graduates from technical high schools and vocational lycées may attend these colleges.

Graduates from the men's higher technical teacher training colleges are appointed as teachers to industrial vocational high schools and technical lycées.

There are also two men's higher trade teacher training colleges offering a two-year course. Graduates from these schools can teach in industrial practical trade schools. Courses are of two years duration and primary school graduates are accepted as students. These schools aim to give students, who afterwards progress directly to industrial workshops, a sound practical knowledge of their subjects.

The women's higher technical teacher training college provides a four-year course for students who have followed the completed course at a vocational or technical high school for girls and who have gained the required marks in the Inter-Universities Selection Examination.

A shorter course of two years duration is also offered at the women's higher trade teacher training colleges. Graduates from these shorter courses are appointed as teachers to girls practical trade schools of which there are many, especially in the rural areas. These girls practical trade schools emphasise practical rather than theoretical knowledge and accept holders of primary school diplomas as students.

In three cities, old-established teacher training centres offer nine-month courses to train village women to become peripatetic teachers of vocational subjects.

The Higher Teachers Training College for Tourism and Commerce offers a four-year course and accepts appropriately qualified students from commercial high schools and lycées. The graduates of this college are appointed as teachers in commercial high schools and in tourism and hotel catering lycées.

In addition, there exists a Higher Teachers Training College for Industrial Arts, which accepts qualified high school students or students of equivalent status, according to scores achieved in the Inter-Universities Selection Examination. This course is of three or four years duration. Graduates from this college are appointed to high schools or schools of the second phase of basic education as teachers of optional subjects.

The Higher Islamic Institutes offer courses of four years' duration and accept appropriately qualified students from Imam and preacher lycées through the Inter-Universities Selection Examination. Graduates from these institutes are appointed as teachers to secondary vocational and technical lycées.

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